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ABSTRACT

The report on recurrent education in Japan is one of a series describing continuation education in OECD member countries. Intended as a means of liberating individuals from the education-work-leisure-retirement sequence, recurrent education provides freedom to mix and alternate these phases of life within the limits of the socially possible. Chapter I provides information on the post World War II re-orientation of the Japanese formal education system in response to new demands such as recurrent education and discusses services provided by public and private agencies. Chapter II discusses study opportunities for five periods of life: infants, school children, adults, the general public, and meeting the demands for leisure activities. Topics include education in the home, parents' education classes, children's nature study, public vocational training, women's study classes, classes for the elderly, educational broadcasting and television, correspondence courses, and expansion of leisure time. Chapter III provides information on administrative measures which have been developed to deal with these programs. Described are the Social Educational Council, citizens councils, activity statistics, educational media, and budgeting. Concluding remarks in Chapter IV discuss Japan's objective of providing quality education for all stages of human development. (Author/DB)

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RECURRENT EDUCATION

POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT IN OECD MEMBER COUNTRIES

JAPAN

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L'ÉDUCATION RÉCURRENTÉ

**POLITIQUES ET ÉVOLUTION :
RAPPORTS PAR PAYS**

JAPON

Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI)

RECURRENT EDUCATION

**POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT
IN OECD MEMBER COUNTRIES**

JAPAN

by

KAZUFUSA MORO-OKA

Ministry of Education,
Tokyo

**ORGANIZATION FOR ECONOMIC
COOPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT**

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1976

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PREFACE

Recurrent education on which CERI has been carrying out preparatory work over the last few years, has rapidly become one of the most interesting and promising alternatives for the future development of the educational system and its interaction with the world of work.

Through two recent publications called: Recurrent Education: A Strategy for Lifelong Learning (CERI/OECD, 1973), and Recurrent Education: Trends and Issues (CERI/OECD, 1975), CERI has made explicit the assumptions on which a policy for recurrent education is based and tried to identify its relation to social and labour market policies, as well as presenting an assessment of recent developments in the field.

The essence of the concept is that it distributes education over the lifespan of the individual in a recurring way. This means a development away from the present practice of a long uninterrupted pre-work period of full-time schooling. It also implies the alternation of education with the individual's other activities in life - principally, of course, his work: but his leisure time and even his retirement might also be included. Hence the essential potential outcome of recurrent education would be the individual's liberation from the strict sequence of education-work-leisure-retirement and his freedom to mix and alternate these phases of life within the limit of what is socially possible and to the satisfaction of his own desires and needs.

At this point, CERI has considered it as essential to endeavour to present the actual developments in Member countries concerning recurrent education. As part of this project CERI is issuing a number of country reports on recurrent education. These reports are intended both to describe existing educational provision which qualifies for classification under the heading of recurrent education, and to attempt an estimation of future developments in this field.

The present report on Japan will be followed by other reports from OECD Member countries. Reports are already available for

Australia, Denmark, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, the State of New York, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and Yugoslavia.

J.R. GASS
Director,
Centre for Educational
Research and Innovation

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1. RECURRENT EDUCATION, LIFELONG EDUCATION AND SOCIAL EDUCATION

The purpose of this paper is to present information about recurrent education in Japan. It is, however, difficult to find a Japanese equivalent for this English expression. As an alternative, the term lifelong education or "éducation permanente", has proved more popular among educationalists and the general public, partly because we have succeeded in translating it into Japanese, as Shogai Kyoiku, and partly because social changes in the last few decades have required a re-orientation of our educational system to enable us to cope with new situations as they arise. It was Professor Hatano who first introduced the idea of lifelong education, with its Japanese translation of Shogai Kyoiku, when he attended the International Committee for the Promotion of Out-of-School Education in 1965 - the theme there being Permanent Education. He later published his Japanese translation of the committee's basic paper in co-operation with the Japanese National Commission for UNESCO.

Stimulated by Professor Hatano's work, a considerable number of books and articles have been published on the theme of lifelong education. In 1971 two official reports were published, both of which had great influence in making the concept of lifelong education popular among the Japanese people. One was produced by the Central Council on Education, recommending "fundamental policies for the overall expansion and improvement of school education", and the other was by the Social Education Council who proposed, after three years' deliberations, "what social education should be like to cope with the rapid change of our social structure". Both reports were of the opinion that we should adopt the idea of lifelong education in the re-orientation of the educational system. However, doubt has been cast upon these official views by some Japanese educationalists who are suspicious that education will be administered and controlled at the national level without sufficient regard for the needs of the individual.

Taking the view that education should not be administered from above but at grass-roots level, they prefer the term lifelong learning to lifelong education. While I agree that we must encourage the individual learner's willingness to learn, I feel that this view is insufficient for the re-formation, re-orientation and innovation of the present educational system. It is widely agreed among educationalists that education is a teaching-learning process. This means that it contains two major constituent factors: learners on the one hand, and educational environment on the other. Needless to say, the educational environment cannot be properly formed without the learner's active participation. If the environment is poor, we cannot expect effective results in its educational effects. How can we get good results in learning without buildings, teachers or leaders, teaching materials and the like? We may judge, therefore, that lifelong education should aim at ensuring a supply of education sufficient for people's demands to be fully met at every stage of life. In other words, the concept of lifelong education means providing people with as many opportunities as possible to enable them to continue a lifelong learning process. This has much in common with the idea of recurrent education as proposed by the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation at OECD - indeed its initial publication is subtitled "A strategy for lifelong learning".

As mentioned earlier, the expression "recurrent education" is not well known in Japan, the term "lifelong education" being generally used instead. According to an investigation made by the Ministry of Education in 1971 among people over the age of 15, some 50 per cent had heard of lifelong education, and approximately 88 per cent were reported to have some interest in lifelong learning as it concerned themselves.

The re-orientation of the present educational system has been thus far directed towards implementing the idea of lifelong education, as adopted by UNESCO. What then, are the differences between this and recurrent education, as understood by the CERI term? In fact, those differences are not at all clearly defined; nevertheless it is possible, I think, to distinguish between the two ideas as follows.

Both deny that education is only for children and youth, and intend to reform (re-orientate) the traditional education system, which has been termed a "front-end model" because it comprises a long, uninterrupted pre-work period of full-time schooling.

Lifelong education attempts to unify and integrate the different parts of education, taking an organic viewpoint about people's individual development. In other words, it tries to include the real situations of everyday life such as home, school, work place and society as the very places where educational activities must be

carried out to help individual personality development in each stage of life. It is primarily concerned with the development of the individual throughout his or her lifespan and regards education as an intrinsic part of each individual's continuing self-development.

As for recurrent education, the intent is to promote and stimulate the optional development of the individual's abilities and interests and to alternate work and education in a recurring way as a strategy for all post-compulsory or post-basic education. Its essence is the distribution of education over the lifetime of the individual in a recurring way, constantly in alternation with other types of activity, particularly work. In recurrent education therefore the stress is on the latter part of each individual's lifespan. An attempt must be made to reform the education provided for those who are already engaged in professional work and are playing a role in society. The strategy is not directed to children who are immature and as yet have no important role in society.

In Japan we have yet another concept that must be brought into the discussion here - Social Education. This term is used to describe all educational activities and provisions that people enjoy in society, not in schools, from their childhood onward. It is used in contradistinction to school education. In the Social Education Law it is stated that "social education implies all systematic activities of education (including physical education and recreation) primarily for out-of-school youth and adults, excluding such educational activities as are as conducted in schools as part of curricular work in accordance with the School Education Law of 1947". In other words, "social education" is used as an all-embracing term covering all educational activities other than formal school education. In a sense, the idea of social education is similar in approach to life-long education and to recurrent education.

2. AGENCIES PROVIDING MATERIAL FOR RECURRENT EDUCATION

There are two types of agencies providing people with opportunities for recurrent education; public agencies and independent private agencies. The former are run by governmental bodies including the Ministry of Education at the central or national level and also by local public bodies at the local level. At the local level, there are 47 prefectures, 578 cities, 2,013 towns, and 684 villages. Private bodies include industries, miscellaneous schools, broadcasting companies, private bodies for social correspondence education and many other voluntary organisations for adult social education. Up-to-date data on their provisions and activities are given later in this report. It would, however, be difficult to include these

private bodies in any strategy designed to implement recurrent education, because they are independent of any public control. All that public bodies can do is to assist them in their planning and to support their activities, asking in return for their co-operation in incorporating these activities in the national strategy. As to government agencies, other than the Ministry of Education itself, some have been carrying out educational activities for years. For example, at one extreme they provide the training service for public officials, at the other they are responsible for the enlightenment of the general public. The former is a closed type of activity that is provided only for public officials, while the latter is a type of activity involving the general public; both may be relied upon for aid in planning a system for recurrent education.

The educational activities of government agencies other than the Ministry of Education are specifically concerned with their own specialised field and do not contribute much to the individual development of course members. The training institute run by the Ministry of Labour, for example, provides preparatory training courses for some specialised jobs, while the health and hygiene enlightenment activities carried out by the Ministry of Welfare are limited to hygiene education. When we think of a recurrent education system, we must, therefore, focus upon the activities of the Ministry of Education as the most likely to play a central role.

As already observed, education has two major constituents: one being learners and the other education environments, or what may be called the means of learning. When we think of the introduction of recurrent education, it becomes necessary to think also of conditions that will enable people to become involved in continuing learning, in other words, learning will have to be made more accessible. For example, the establishment of systems such as the five-day working week, paid study leave and so forth may be necessary prerequisites. It becomes relevant, therefore, that I should comment now firstly on some learning opportunities provided for people at all stages in their lives, and, secondly, on the administrative measures taken by government bodies in co-operation with private organisations to broaden these learning opportunities or to increase their availability.

Chapter 2

PROVISION FOR STUDY PROJECTS FOR EACH PERIOD OF LIFE

A. FOR INFANTS

1. Parents' Education Classes

Social education in Japan deals with the entire educational provision other than school education; i.e. pre-school as well as post-school education are included under this term. Education for infants, however, is obviously the parents' responsibility, so social education does not have a direct effect on them but rather an indirect one through the education of the parents.

Education in the home has usually been considered a private matter in which only the parents are concerned. This may be acceptable when society is static, but as we live in a rapidly changing society the need to learn about parenthood is felt, especially by many young parents, for the following main reasons:

- i) due to the gradual replacement of the extended by the nuclear family, it has become difficult for young parents to learn from the older members of the family;
- ii) since today's children are greatly influenced by the rapid progress of urbanisation, industrialisation, etc., parents must now acquire an understanding of the possible consequences these changes may have upon their children's daily lives.

In order to cope with these problems and respond to the Social Education Council's recommendation of 1962, parent's education classes came into being, and later, in 1964, a state subsidy was made available for their operation. These classes were gradually expanded by the local education authorities as the counties came to recognise the necessity for such facilities. This was largely in response to initiatives shown at national level and to regional study meetings that were held on this issue.

2. Counselling Project on Infant Care

This project, with a newly devised multi-media approach to some extent similar to the British Open University, is designed to increase

learning opportunities in the home. According to a public opinion poll taken by the Prime Minister's Office in 1970, there are 16,070,000 households with children under the age of 18. Eight million, six hundred and eighty thousand (34 per cent) of mothers in these households have expressed some interest in participating in classes on infant care, but the number who actually attended them was no more than 770,000, less than 10 per cent of those who had shown an interest. It is easy enough to understand how difficult it can be for such parents with children physically to attend classes, so, as an alternative, they are being given various opportunities to learn in their homes. The following multi-media approaches are employed:

- a) postcards and other printed materials are mailed to parents, conveying useful information about education in the home;
- b) a team of experts (doctors, child psychologists, etc.) is sent to a previously specified location within the designated prefecture to provide a counselling service for parents with child care problems;
- c) parents are given guidance in child care by means of television programmes commissioned from a commercial company with coverage of the entire prefecture. This is broadcast under the following conditions:
 - i) the content of the programme must be designed to answer the questions that were most frequently addressed either to the team of counsellors or to the committee in charge of mailed information;
 - ii) each programme must be longer than 15 minutes, with a total of 26 or more showings occupying at least B-time, and all showings must be in colour.

This project, which was initiated in 1972-73, was adopted by 12 prefectures during the first year, by 30 prefectures during 1973-74, and by 38 prefectures this year. Its average annual cost is 27,500,000 yen per prefecture, half of the expenses being covered by a state subsidy. The Ministry of Education paid 110 million yen in 1972-73, 412 million yen in 1973-74 and 584 million during 1974.

According to information collected in 1973-74, 24 prefectures directed the parental learning process towards parents of children 3 years old; the remaining 6 prefectures focused on parents of two-year-old children, bringing the total number involved in the project to 560,000. Postcards and printed materials were mailed to all participating parents on an average of 10 times a year, while each prefectural board of education received on average 5 return postcards asking questions related to the materials. The teams providing counselling services were sent out on an average of 15 times annually and gave advice to an average of 50 individuals each time in each prefecture.

Among the television programmes broadcast were such shows as "The world of 3 year old children", "Mama's diary of rearing children", "Hello, 3 year olds!", "Rosy Cheeks" and "I am two years old".

3. The Content of Education in the Home

Despite the fact that education in the home about babies and infants is recognised as being of great importance, the information given hitherto on child rearing has not always been properly based on the latest research. Because of this the Social Education Council inaugurated an inquiry in 1972 and submitted a recommendation to the Minister of Education in May 1974, accompanied by a detailed study prepared by a group of experts. The purpose of this study was to educate parents on the various methods of child rearing. The basic outline of the document is as follows:

- Significance of education in the home about babies and infants;
- Home education about babies:
 - a) importance of the baby's growth
 - b) phases of the baby's growth
 - c) development of the baby's basic abilities and character:
 - i) sense of recognition
 - ii) body functions
 - iii) learning of basic words and thinking
 - iv) development of emotions
 - v) interrelated development of the above
 - vi) uniqueness of personal character
 - d) babyhood and environment
- Home education about infants
 - a) importance of the infant's growth
 - b) phases of the infant's growth
 - c) development of the infant's basic abilities and character:
 - i) physical growth
 - ii) intelligence
 - iii) language
 - iv) emotions
 - v) social awareness
 - vi) personality
 - d) infancy and environment

In order to make the Social Education Council's recommendations properly known they were distributed, with the accompanying documentation, to local education authorities. Study meetings about them

will be held shortly in three different centres. The budget for this project during 1974-75 is 10 million yen.

B. FOR SCHOOL CHILDREN

As mentioned earlier, recurrent education is normally proposed and discussed as a strategy for education subsequent to the compulsory stages. It is, nevertheless, a concept that can be extended to school children. Just as we provide adults with the opportunities for alternation between work and study, so too could we provide school children with the chance of alternation between the systematic and rather passive fare as offered in formal education and the more social learning activities that are now available outside school. The following are two examples of what is possible.

1. Communion with nature - Children's Nature Houses

This is encouraged with a view to stimulating a serious interest on the part of young children in the relationship between nature and human beings. It is effected through frequent contact with nature and instruction about it, the principal facility being Children's Nature Houses. These are institutions for young school children corresponding to the youth centres for the other age groups (see below). The first of them was built in 1970; three more were built during the same year, 6 in 1971, 18 in 1972, and 24 in 1973, making a total of 52 at present. Most of them are established and run by local education authorities, just as the youth centres are. Some are located in mountainous areas, others on the coast. These Nature Houses are designed to give school children the opportunity to observe and study nature as well as offering them various other kinds of outdoor activities. They are equipped with boarding accommodation for more than 200 and this enables children to live, work, study, and play together with their friends, which may be difficult for them at home or at school. They are generally used by boys and girls from primary or secondary schools, so it is required that adult leaders supervise them when they make their visits.

Almost all these centres are operated by local bodies, but to commemorate the centenary of Japan's educational administration, the first national centre was founded in 1973. This will become a model for all local centres, 8 more of which are expected to be built in each region.

2. Fellowship with others - Youth Houses

This is encouraged to awaken children to a sense of their own role as members of specific groups - not only of the same age

(e.g. classmates) but of different ages and different localities. It is hoped thereby to foster co-operative and harmonious attitudes towards other people. The principal facility for this is a country-wide system of Youth Houses. These are residential institutions where young people can take part in various outdoor activities and group training, through which they are expected to develop a co-operative outlook, friendship, discipline and a willingness to work for other people.

Institutes of this kind were first subsidised by the state in 1955, when they were used mainly by working youth for vocational training. Several years later (in 1958) they came officially to be called Seinen-no-Ie (Youth Houses) and took on a more comprehensive function, providing young people with an opportunity for many types of activity, including, not only vocational training, but group studies, sports activities and so on. In the early stages these youth centres were established by local bodies, but since 1959 the state has been building one or more every year. There are now 13 such national youth centres, while local centres number more than 200. Most of the national centres are equipped with 400 beds, while the local centres usually have less than 200. Non-residential youth centres have been established since 1949 in order to meet with the increasing demand among urban youth for a variety of educational and social activities. Both categories of youth centres are used by youth groups up to 25 years of age, and organisations for the training of youth leaders and similar staff. Non-residential centres may also be used by young people in furthering their individual educational activities. In addition, the centres organise training courses themselves to suit the requirements of the youth in their locality. Examples of programmes provided by youth centres are:

- training courses for youth leaders
- training courses for recreational leaders
- orientation courses for new employees
- various kinds of vocational training courses
- courses on everyday life activities.

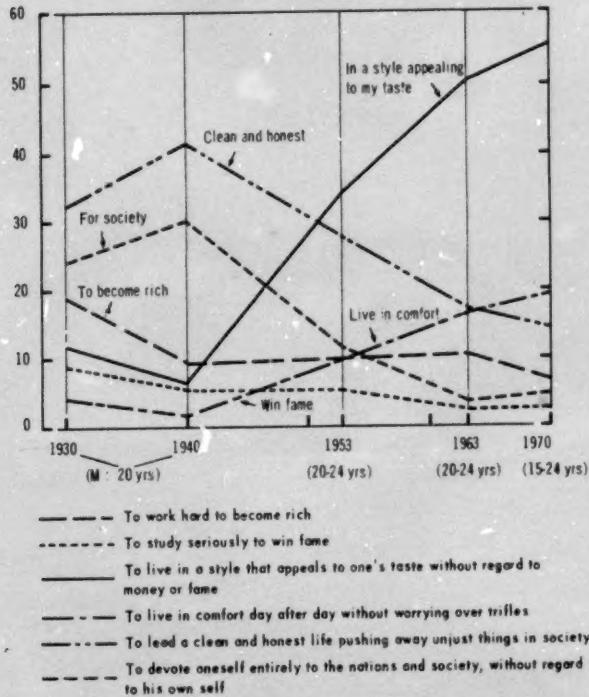
As already mentioned, these institutions were used at the outset primarily by young working people. As the number of centres has increased, however, the student youth, particularly senior high school boys, have been using their facilities more and more.

C. FOR ADULTS

1. Public Vocational Training

Vocational training endeavours to improve the abilities necessary for workers' occupations. Historically it has been developed

Figure 1
HISTORICAL TRENDS IN VALUE ORIENTATION
OF JAPANESE YOUTH



Source: Ministry of Education and Prime Minister's Office.

with two motives: the protection of apprentices and as a counter-measure for unemployment. Since the middle of the 1950s, however, it has been used to secure a technical labour force necessary for economic growth, and to raise the social or economic position of the labourer, not as a remedial means, but as a more positive measure for the development of manpower.

In the pursuit of high economic growth, the Vocational Training Law was established in 1958 to deal with various changes such as technical diversification accompanied by a shortage of labour, a more educated work force, and the promotion of technical modernisation. In 1969, the completely revised New Vocational Training Law came into effect and it has remained unchanged since. Its great feature lies in its insistence that "Vocational training should be done both gradually and systematically through the whole period of workers' professional lives".

The System of Vocational Training

Vocational training is of two types:

- a) public vocational training sponsored by a government body, and
- b) approved vocational training sponsored by business proprietors.

Included in each are: basic training, upgrading training, updating training, occupational capacity redevelopment training, and instructor training.

Basic training is designed to teach basic skills and knowledge necessary for an occupation mainly to new, lower and upper secondary school graduates. This includes a specialised training course to impart basic occupational skills and an advanced training course for the benefit of skilled workers. The duration of such courses varies from 6 months to 3 years.

Upgrading Training and Updating Training are designed to avoid those who have already done basic training falling behind technical progress or social change, by providing further knowledge and technical skills. They also develop the abilities necessary for leadership and the guidance of workers on the job.

Occupational Capacity Redevelopment Training is designed to provide older people and those are changing jobs with the necessary skills for assuming a new occupation. These include housewives who desire to return to the labour market. New basic skills are taught in a relatively short period of time (varying from 2 months to a year).

Instructor Training is designed (as the name implies) to train instructors and help them improve their quality. It includes a long-term training course of 4 years, a short-term course of 6 months, and a seminar course of one month.

Present Conditions of Vocational Training

In 1973-74 there were approximately 440 public vocational training schools with more than 200,000 students enrolled, plus some 1,300 approved vocational training schools (individual - 513, and co-operative - 788) with the number of students enrolled reaching approximately 90,000. Such vocational training had been showing a gradual decrease in its number of students since its peak around 1965; however, since the Upgrading Training and Occupational Capacity Redevelopment Training came into being in 1971, there has been a steady yearly increase in participation.

As for the Basic Training, the number of students enrolled is getting smaller because of a decrease of junior high school graduates and increase of students who go on to higher education. The ratio of senior high school graduates to all students enrolled is increasing.

Table 1
NUMBER OF PUBLIC VOCATIONAL TRAINING FACILITIES
AND THEIR TRAINING CAPACITIES, 1973

	Number of Centres	Annual Capacity (persons)
<u>Established by prefectural governments</u>		
General Vocational Training Centres	285	122,570
Advanced Vocational Training Centres	59	4,350
Vocational Training Centres for the Physically-Handicapped	3	200
<u>Established by the Employment Promotion Projects Corporation</u>		
Advanced Vocational Training Centres	90	74,485
The Institute of Vocational Training	1	1,200
<u>Established by the State and operated by Prefectural Governments</u>		
Vocational Training Centres for the Physically-Handicapped	1	1,840
<u>Established by Local Governments</u>		
Authorised Public Vocational Training Centres	4	630

While on Occupational Capacity Redevelopment Training, people who satisfy certain conditions are provided with a compensatory grant for everyday needs. People enrolled in it are relatively young: only 32 per cent are over 35, while 50 per cent are under 24 years old. This type of training, as well as upgrading training, has been provided on a full scale since 1972 when the number of students on these training courses was about 5,700. Vocational training for agricultural workers who wished to get a job in industry was provided for the first time in 1970. By 1972 5,600 people were taking advantage of it.

Currently there are some 7,000 instructors working in the public vocational training facilities, and approximately 50,000 in the approved vocational training projects. The training of these instructors is undertaken by the Institute of Vocational Training. People with attainments equal to or higher than a senior high school graduate are permitted to enter the Institute for their 4 years' training, while those who have business experience of more than 5 years are allowed a 6-month training period. The number of students on the former course in 1972 was 480; on the latter course there were 80.

Problems of Vocational Training

The first problem with basic training is that the rate of enforcement is really low, the percentage of new junior high school graduates in both public and approved training centres reaching only 19.6. Training courses came to be provided for junior high school graduates through the law of 1969, but it has been only a couple of years since this was enacted so its effects have yet to be seen.

Secondly there is a difference between what employing companies can do: for example, in large-scale enterprises with more than 1,000 employees, 20 per cent of staff undergo training for 6 months, while in small companies with less than 500 employees only 5 per cent of all workers can attend such courses. Similarly in content: large firms can combine practical training and theoretical studies whereas the smaller ones tend to concentrate on practical training only.

The problems with Occupational Capacity Redevelopment Training, which is mainly provided for switch-over of jobs, are firstly that it is undertaken mostly by large-scale companies, and secondly, that it has been restricted to such traditional jobs as construction, metal work and printing. Although there has gradually been provision of additional courses for chemicals, electronics, drawing, data-processing and so on, much more training is urgently needed for such jobs as clerical work, commerce, information service, hotel service and the maintenance and preservation of electronic equipment and machines. Thirdly, young workers still represent a majority of those taking this kind of training (see Table II) and it seems necessary for something different to be provided for women and older people.

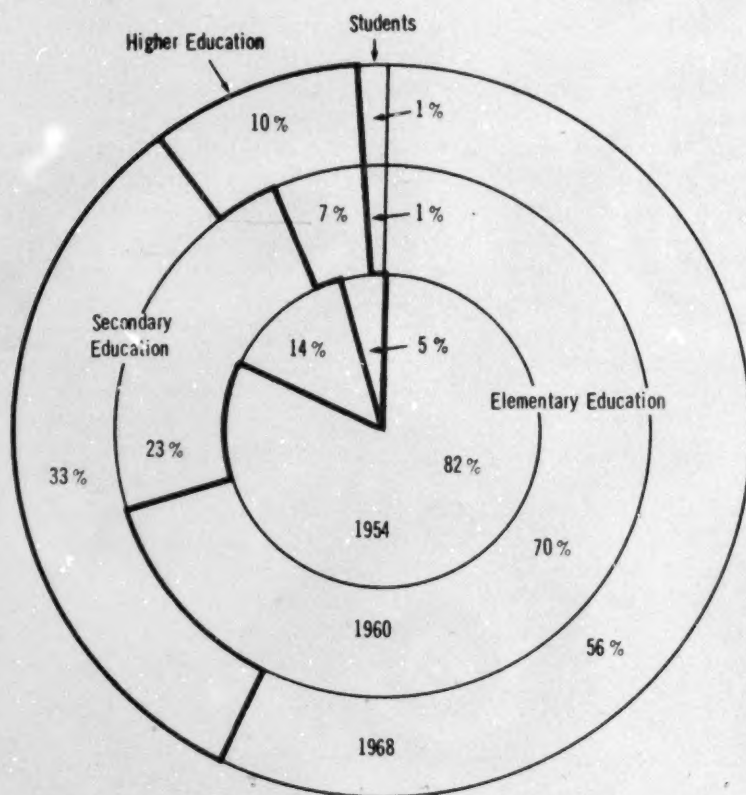
Table II

PERCENTAGE OF TRAINEES BY AGE RANGE, 1971

Type of Training Institute	Under 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 and over
General Vocational Training Centre	49.7	19.3	15.0	16.0
Advanced Vocational Training Centre	49.6	15.8	14.1	20.5
Total	49.7	18.5	14.8	17.0

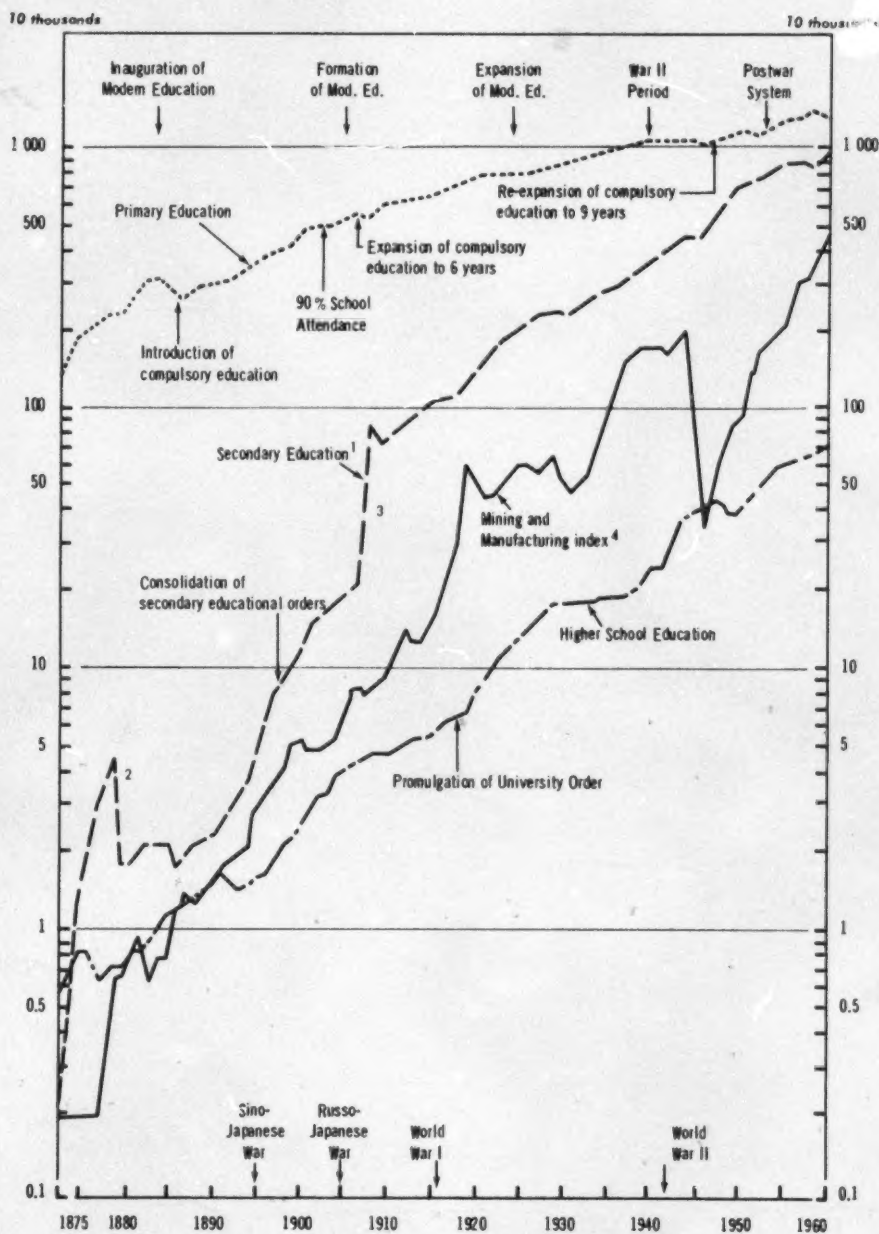
One of the problems related to upgrading and updating training is that training of this kind is generally accepted as being the responsibility of the companies themselves, whereas, in fact, the number putting a system into operation is very small. According to an investigation made by the Ministry of Labour, the percentage of blue-collar workers who received this kind of training for more than 10 hours was 10.6, whereas only 3.3 per cent had received more than 30 hours. Furthermore, among those working in companies with more

Figure 2
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYEES BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION



Source : Ministry of Labor, *White Paper on Labor*, 1970
 1954 Ministry of Education, *Educational Levels and Types of Occupations in the Working Place*, 1967
 1960 Bureau of Statistics, Prime Minister's Office, *Census*
 1968 Bureau of Statistics, Prime Minister's Office, *Basic Survey on the Structure of Employees*

Figure 3
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN ELEMENTARY, SECONDARY, AND HIGH SCHOOLS AND
MINING AND MANUFACTURING INDEX



Source : Ministry of Education, *The Growth of Japan and Education*, p. 50.

Table III
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES BY OCCUPATION

(In ten thousands of persons)

Year	Total	Professional and Technical Workers	Managers and Officials	Clerical Workers	Sales Workers	Farmers and Fishermen	Miners and Quarrymen	Transportation and Communications Workers	Operatives	Labourers	Service Workers
Men											
1960	2,629	138	86	303	328	656	26	93		864	136
1965	2,852	142	125	372	345	532	17	157	855	146	160
1970	3,091	178	129	388	390	431	11	210	1,048	141	160
Women											
1960	1,807	82	5	196	268	666	6	7		415	162
1965	1,878	96	6	264	270	562	2	20	381	83	194
1970	2,003	117	5	367	272	449	1	22	463	76	228

Source: Labour Force Survey, Bureau of Statistics, Office of the Prime Minister.

than 500 employees, 17 per cent had an opportunity to join such courses, but in firms with less than 500 employees, only 9 per cent of all workers could attend them. Secondly, the traditional type of upgrading and updating training has been mainly undertaken as informal on-the-job training and the system works in such a way that a small number of selected workers are given the opportunity for basic training and they in turn are expected to take on the training for the rest of the staff. Since these training schemes are not considered adequate, the Basic Plan of Vocational Training drawn up by the Ministry of Labour intends to increase the opportunity for training so that by 1975 15-20 per cent of skilled workers may receive such upgrading/updating training. Thirdly, a trade skills test has been in operation since 1959 in order to motivate people to join upgrading/updating training courses, and the number of applicants and successful examinees has been increasing year by year; even so these tests are not yet sufficiently widespread.

To sum up, the traditional type of training is still dominant but a great effort has been made to cope with the changes of jobs in accordance with technological innovation, even though a new system has yet to be devised.

The result of investigations made by the Economic Planning Agency in 1971 shows that more than 70 per cent of workers have some interest in receiving training related to their jobs, and it is earnestly desired that provisions be provided, either by the above-mentioned public vocational training centres, or by miscellaneous schools which will be described later.

2. Provisions within Industries

The Employers' Approach

It is said that in the 1960s industrial circles made a quick response to the idea of life-long education, from the point of view that they could not achieve higher productivity without heightening their employees' incentives to work spontaneously and effectively. In other words the principle of management has been transformed from the traditional type of "controlled management" to the new type of management that requires workers themselves to exercise control over their jobs. This recognises the workers as responsible people with imagination and ingenuity. Such a change requires a new and appropriately planned training system, and in this sense a large firm becomes a school for continuing learning.

The Employees' Approach

How have the trade unions been coping with this systematisation of training by the employers? There have been two tendencies: one

has been for the trade unions to demand a good share of the cake gained by a higher degree of productivity, where the workers themselves make strenuous efforts on their own initiative to improve their productivity in accordance with the employers' intentions. The other tendency, visible from the latter half of the 1960s, has been for some of the major trade unions to carry out systematic educational planning, with long-range perspectives. They have thus supplemented such traditional courses as "Workers' Course" or "Working Men's College" and recognised the importance of establishing a system of worker self-education.

In 1966, for example, the Japan Telecommunications Workers Union decided to establish a long-term residential college named "House of Solidarity", and the Japan Federation of Iron and Steel Workers' Unions started a campaign entitled "Study Movement of the whole 1,800,000 members", and began to publish their own textbooks for learning in the same year. In 1967 All Japan Prefectural and Municipal Workers' Union inaugurated a long-term residential education course, and in 1968 the National Railway Workers' Union instituted local labour lecture courses for their members and decided to build a residential college, which came into being early this year (1974). From these facts it can be seen that the trade unions are now making efforts to establish their own premises for their members' education, besides just conducting offensive propaganda.

Work-based Learning for the Smaller Retailers

Along with the progress of urbanisation we can observe the outward movement of the city population to the suburban areas where new cities and towns are emerging and the department stores and large-scale supermarkets from the big capitals are being erected. Small retail dealers, facing this challenge, have been forced to overcome this difficult situation by organising voluntary chains to collaborate and cope with the greater power of these big businesses.

In forming such chain organisations the voluntary members make study trips and attend study meetings, and once a business is established supervisors from the headquarters go around the affiliated stores to give advice on such things as the layout of the shop and trends in commodities, as well as on arrangements for new buildings or rebuilding, accommodation of capital and training of operatives. Thus the owners of the smaller shops have access to educational opportunities and we may, therefore, count this as a kind of recurrent education. According to the survey carried out by the Ministry of International Trade and Industry in 1971 approximately 500 bodies with 30,000 consultants are said to be available to facilitate such learning activities.

3. Women's Study Classes

In a highly industrialised and transforming society, where women are expected to play a even more complex and diversified role as home makers, mothers, workers and citizens, what they have to learn in order to perform their roles varies considerably. As mothers they ought to develop home management skills to cope with changes in ways of life and expenditure and those skills necessary to become a qualified educator at home to keep pace with the growing importance of this aspect of family life. The levelling up of the educational standards of women, the increase in their leisure time, the extension of their life span, and the requirements of an industrialised society make opportunities for vocational education for women necessary to allow also for their entry into the labour market. Finally, women also need learning opportunities for civic and volunteer activities and the promotion of education, culture and welfare in the community. In accordance with the expanded needs of women's learning, women's education has achieved an important status in the field of social education. One of the outstanding provisions here is the Women's Study Classes which for the first time received a state grant in 1956. There were 33,000 such classes held in 1972 with the participation of 1,560,000 women, 57.8 per cent being provided by local boards of education and 25.4 per cent by the women's organisations themselves. By far the greater number of these classes are held in the agricultural and rural areas, and consequently the participation of farming wives is predominant. However, with the recent trend towards urbanisation, the need for establishing similar facilities in the cities has been accentuated and a growing number of courses is currently being organised in the housing complexes and workshops in and around metropolitan areas. An average class is usually composed of 40-60 women, work hours ranging from 20 to 60 hours per course. The most active participation comes from the age bracket 30-50 years and this accounts for 70 per cent of the total. Some of the topics that have proved to be of particular interest to women are: household affairs and family life, consumer knowledge, child care and education, civic matters, vocational education, health and safety. In addition, public and private educational agencies provide "Classes for Better Living" aimed at modernising the living conditions of farming people, "Mothers' Classes" for maternal health and child care, "New Life Schools" for consumer know-how, and the broadcast "Citizens' Course".

4. Classes for the Elderly

The percentage of aged people in the total population has been increasing. During the decade 1970-1980 the rate of increase in the Japanese population was estimated at less than 12 per cent. Compared

with this, the youth population (age 15-29) showed a 14 per cent decrease, the middle-aged population (30-44) 16 per cent, and the population of the older people (age 45-59) a higher increase still of 37 per cent. To cope with such new circumstances in the 1970s, it is necessary to provide the older people with the opportunity for study. After a two-year trial period, a class for the elderly is now provided for with public funds. It is designed at improving their social ability according to their age and at encouraging them to participate in study activities.

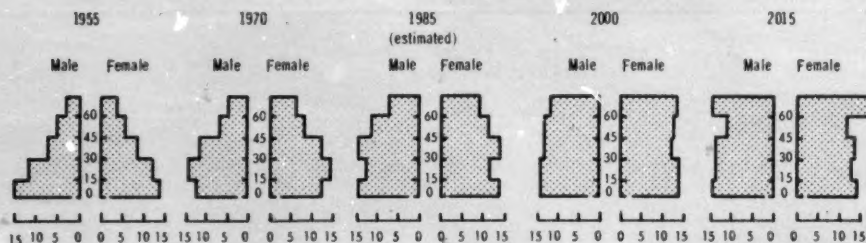
The conditions for such classes are as follows:

- participants - people over 65
- hours of study in a year - 36
- place - public halls, school buildings, etc.
- cost of running one class - 210,000 yen per annum.

On opening a class for aged people, consideration must be given to the real conditions of their lives, their study ability and their individual interests. It is desirable, therefore, that participants form their own steering committee, which plans and even manages their own classes in co-operation with the aged people's clubs, PTA, schools, and the administrative bodies. The content of the study may be designed with the following purposes:

- to understand social changes
- to understand the younger generation
- to keep their health
- to enrich their hobbies and education
- to participate in social services
- to improve their social ability.

Figure 4
HISTORICAL TRENDS IN THE AGE STRUCTURE



Source : Institute of Population Problems.

Table IV
DATA ON THE JAPANESE POPULATION

Year	Total Population (1 million)	Birth Rate (%)	Mortality Rate (%)	Average Lifespan (years of age)	
				Male	Female
1900	43.874	32.4	20.8	43.97	44.85
1920	55.391	36.2	25.4	42.06	43.20
1930	63.872	32.4	18.2	44.82	46.54
1935	69.254	31.6	16.8	46.92	49.63
1940	72.540	29.4	16.5	-	-
1947	78.101	34.3	14.6	50.1	54.0
1950	83.200	28.1	10.9	59.6	63.0
1955	89.276	19.4	7.8	63.6	67.8
1960	93.419	17.2	7.6	65.3	70.2
1965	98.275	18.6	7.1	68.1	73.3
1970	104.665	18.8	6.9	69.3	74.7
1972	107.332	19.3	6.5	70.5	75.9

Source: Institute of Population Problems.

As for the study methods, they comprise lectures, discussions, group activities, outdoor activities, observations, workshop, and use of all sorts of audio-visual aids such as television, radio, films, etc.

In 1973-74, 1,662 such classes were organised in 1,271 cities, towns and villages, which means that about 40 per cent of all cities, towns and villages in this country organised a class for aged people. (In detail, 60 per cent of cities, 40 per cent of towns, and 20 per cent of villages.) The number of participants was about 150,000 which is about 1.8 per cent of all people over 65. Classified by sex, there were about 80,000 men (55 per cent) and some 70,000 women (45 per cent). By age, people in their seventies account for 46 per cent of all participants, followed by those in their sixties and in their eighties. There are about 30 people over 90.

The average number of participants in one class is 89. Classes of 50 to 60 members account for 29 per cent, while those having more than 100 participants account for 24 per cent. Days of study in a year are mostly 10 to 20 (72 per cent) and hours of study are 36 to 50 per year (70 per cent), although there are approximately 155 classes that have more than 70 lessons. The class is usually organised on the basis of 36 hours a year, but there are many classes with far more, which shows that aged people have a great and active desire for learning.

Table V

CLASSES FOR THE ELDERLY: NUMBER OF ATTENDANTS BY AGE

Age Range	Under 60	60-69	70-79	80-89	90 over	Total
Number of Attendants	3,393	66,553	67,721	10,306	284	148,257

5. Miscellaneous Schools

In Japan we have various types of schools designed to provide opportunities for post-compulsory education. These so-called Miscellaneous Schools are educational institutions other than those prescribed in the School Education Law, e.g., primary schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, colleges and kindergartens. The present number of Miscellaneous Schools is approximately 8,000 and the number of enrolled students well over 1,250,000 (see Table VI).

The system of Miscellaneous Schools developed after the end of World War II. The first phase (occupying the first decade) was used primarily for reconstruction. The second phase which runs to the present day, has consisted in providing post-compulsory education, but the social status of this is yet to be made clear. The number of students enrolled in higher education establishments is as follows: 1.5 m. in universities, 0.3 m. in junior colleges, and 5 m. in senior high schools. In the case of the national and municipal universities where 3,270,000 students are presently enrolled, the percentage for each department is as follows: Industrial and Technical - 25 per cent, Social Sciences - 16.6 per cent, Education - 2.1 per cent. The private universities, on the other hand, show somewhat different enrolment figures per department, viz. Social Sciences - 49.3 per cent, Industrial - 20 per cent, Literary - 14.3 per cent. The relatively high percentage for literary courses will be noticed. In the case of junior colleges, 90 per cent of the students are enrolled at private institutions. The percentage for each department in this sector is as follows: Home Economics - 31.4 per cent, Literary - 22.3 per cent, Education - 20.6 per cent. The high percentage for Home Economics is explained by the relatively large number of female students attending junior colleges.

For Miscellaneous Schools the enrolments are as follows: Dressmaking, Home Economics - 50 per cent or 250,000, Medical, Sanitary, Welfare - 20 per cent or 100,000, Commercial, Technical - 10 per cent or 50,000, Industrial Technical - 10 per cent or 50,000, Art and Culture - 10 per cent or 50,000. The subjects in these various courses include: Dressmaking, Home Economics - housework, dressmaking in both Japanese and Western styles, knitting, cooking, etc. Medical, Sanitary, Welfare - medical care, nutrition,

Table VI
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

	Number of Schools	Number of Teachers			
		Full-time Teachers		Part-time Teachers	
		Total	Per School	Total	Per School
Kindergarten	11,561	72,797	6.3	7,731	0.7
Elementary School	21,325	381,591	15.7	2,037	0.1
Lower Secondary School	10,686	225,836	21.1	11,202	1.0
Upper Secondary School	4,810	207,204	43.1	31,774	6.6
Technical College	63	3,513	55.8	2,071	35.1
Junior College	492	14,677	29.9	18,365	37.4
University	397	80,959	203.9	47,753	120.3
Miscellaneous School	8,015	47,266	5.9	61,312	7.6

	Total	Number of Students			
		Male	Female	Number of students per full- time teacher	Average number of students per school
Kindergarten	1,842,458	941,914	900,514	25.3	159.3
Elementary School	9,696,233	4,959,777	4,736,456	25.4	398.6
Lower Secondary School	4,688,444	2,394,180	2,294,264	20.8	438.7
Upper Secondary School	4,154,647	2,099,847	2,054,800	20.1	863.8
Technical College	47,853	47,204	649	13.6	759.6
Junior College	287,974	45,646	242,328	19.6	586.5
University	1,529,163	1,241,622	287,541	18.9	3,851.8
Miscellaneous School	1,263,772	421,365	842,407	26.7	157.1

hairdressing, massage, acupuncture, dental hygiene, dentistry technique, moxa cautery, sanitation testing, nursing, kindergarten, teaching, social welfare, etc. Industrial Technical - electricity, engineering, architecture, television, radio and automobile engineering, etc. Commercial Technical - book-keeping, accounting, typing, shorthand, secretarial, etc. Art and Culture - music, art, dancing, acting, tea ceremony, etc. There are many types of courses for this type of school. Among the Miscellaneous Schools there are some for the purpose of post secondary education while others are a supplement of secondary education, which gives opportunities for people of all ages to further their education.

The size of the Miscellaneous School varies a great deal, ranging from very small ones which use a private house as the school and give instruction to the neighbours to much larger ones recruiting roughly 10,000 students from all over the country. As Table VII shows, 57.7 per cent of these schools are very small and have no more than 100 students, while only 160 (2 per cent) recruit over 1,000 students.

Table VII

NUMBER OF MISCELLANEOUS SCHOOLS BY SIZE, 1973

	Under 10	10-100	101-300	301-500	501-1000	Over 1000	Total
Prefectural	18	246	70	11	0	1	346
Private	311	4399	2170	389	271	159	7699
Total	329	4648	2240	400	271	160	8045

The period of education at a Miscellaneous School is, as a rule, more than one year, but there are some schools which have short courses of three to six months. At present, 26.8 per cent of the students studying in these schools are on a course of less than one year; 40.5 per cent are on a course of one or two years; 19.3 per cent on one of two or three years; and 13.4 per cent on a course of longer than three years.

Table VIII shows the students who entered Miscellaneous Schools in 1972, their age and occupation (if any).

According to the attitude survey carried out by the Noma Education Institute in 1972, the students in the Miscellaneous Schools eagerly desire to make use of the Techniques and qualifications they will have acquired after completing their course. In fact, these schools, as educational organisations, are very flexible. They are subject to changes within industry and of location and, indeed, stand at the crossroads of social and industrial demand.

Table VIII
PROPORTION OF THE AGE GROUP ENROLLED
IN MISCELLANEOUS SCHOOLS, 1972

	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE
Under 14	27,007	31,308	58,315	7.8
15 - 17	30,552	76,174	106,726	14.2
18 - 19	140,166	151,475	291,641	38.8
20 - 21	31,364	107,372	138,736	18.4
22 over	48,399	108,300	156,699	20.8
Working people	277,488	474,629	752,117	100
Pre-employment	63,963	189,045	253,008	336
	51,094	57,309	108,403	14.4

More and more of those who have graduated from universities and found jobs in fields other than those covered by their qualifications, are attending Miscellaneous Schools to study subjects related to their new jobs. For example, a man who majored in business management and entered a construction company may well attend a course in architecture at a Miscellaneous School because this is of more use in his work. In this sense Miscellaneous Schools could be considered as establishments genuinely contributing to lifelong or recurrent education. However, people graduating from these schools are not as sought after as those from colleges or universities because their certification carries no formal approval and the schools have no established status under the Education Law. At present it is difficult, therefore, for them to get support from public funds or taxation relief. As part of a reform of the School Education Law, it is intended to change this situation so that the Miscellaneous Schools can be treated as ordinary schools. Although an amending bill has been proposed, it has not yet been ratified. It should be mentioned, however, that some people fear that the real independence and flexibility of the Miscellaneous Schools will be lost if they achieve social recognition and public subsidy in this way. They would much prefer alternative administrative measures of which it could not be said that "the remedy is worse than the evil".

Table IX
HOW PEOPLE SPEND THEIR 24-HOUR DAY (WEEKDAYS)

ACTIVITY	MALES			FEMALES		
	1960 hrs.	1965	1970	1960	1965	1970
Sleep	8.15	8.10	8.04	7.47	7.43	7.42
Meals	1.08	1.15	1.31	1.15	1.22	1.37
Personal chores	25	36	58	24	40	1.03
Work	8.10	8.07	7.54	4.23	4.48	4.00
Housework	38	26	28	5.33	5.18	5.26
Social intercourse	35	37	42	33	40	40
Rest	1.13	1.06	36	1.10	56	38
Leisure activities	22	29	29	21	21	22
Commuting	37	50	51	27	30	24
Newspaper, books, etc	44	47	40	21	21	22
Radio	1.30	31	35	1.55	31	26
Television	53	2.47	2.47	1.00	3.17	3.46

Source: NHK survey on Time Budgeting.

D. FOR THE GENERAL PUBLIC

1. Educational Broadcasting and Television

In Japan at present there are 103 privately owned broadcasting companies and one publicly supported company (NHK) which has 73 regional stations. According to NHK's 1970 survey on people's time consumption in everyday life (Table IX), the average Japanese watches television for 3 hours a day. This gives it a high potential for passing educational information. NHK's 1968 survey on people's intention of learning shows that 60 per cent of the answers mention television and radio as a means of learning, giving as some of the reasons for this "easily accessible", "trustworthy content" and "highly qualified lectures". This confirms the suitability of broadcasting as a communication medium and hence a means of distributing information.

NHK has put continuous effort into the educational use of broadcasting, and produces many types of educational as well as cultural programmes. Commercial broadcasting companies also transmit numerous educational and cultural programmes which together account for more than 30 per cent of total broadcasting hours.

The Commercial Broadcasters' Educational Association (32 companies are affiliated) has been attempting to improve these programmes, with special concern for their educational potential. Additionally there are many general programmes that perform an educational function besides those specifically advertised as such. The number of programmes contributing to social education each week is 60 for NHK television (125 hours per week), and 32 for NHK radio (89 hours per week). An average of 20 such programmes per week are offered by commercial television companies. Broadcast and television receivers are reasonably accessible to all families so individual learning by these means is possible right across the country (Table X). However, to secure a high rate of audience participation, it is clearly necessary to publish advance information about the programmes. For this purpose, NHK distributes to the general public a pamphlet entitled "Your Dial" and the Commercial Broadcasters' Educational Association publishes a guidebook on "Through the Eyes of Parents and Children". NHK also publishes a "Handbook on Social Education Programmes" (Vol 1, 1972) - a small booklet that has enabled social education officers and leaders in this field to become thoroughly familiar with the programmes that can be used in conjunction with their guidance activities.

Table X
NUMBER AND DESTINATION
OF TV COLOUR SETS PRODUCED IN JAPAN

Year	Sets Produced	For Export	For Domestic Use
1964	51,893	17,216	31,275
1965	97,096	43,304	49,852
1966	510,850	266,917	222,381
1967	1,244,427	332,006	890,309
1968	2,738,365	766,403	1,948,821
1969	4,878,192	1,018,699	3,794,678
1970	6,438,079	993,274	4,885,731
1971	6,872,000	1,577,000	7,295,000

Source: Electronic Equipment Producers' Association.

Among the types of education made possible by the broadcasting media, seminars have become popular during the last few years. The "broadcast-seminar" affords the advantages of both individual and group learning. People can appreciate educational programmes at home and can then write to or call a tutor or adviser to ask

about various details. Additionally, local education authorities can hold intensive study meetings for television or radio learners with the assistance of the broadcasting companies. This may greatly encourage the individual learner in his efforts.

As already observed, broadcasts are potentially a highly effective educational tool partly because they can be a part of a multi-media approach. Related information may be disseminated through magazines, newspapers, bulletins and so forth. Hence, people can not only listen to broadcasts; they may also be stimulated to participate in correspondence courses using printed material, or to consult a qualified counsellor.

Despite the amount of information that may be made available it is extremely difficult to evaluate the educational effectiveness of broadcasts and/or related media. A current problem under consideration is therefore how to devise an instrument for valid measurement of the actual learning taking place.

2. Education by Correspondence

There are two large categories in what we call correspondence education: school correspondence education and social correspondence education. The former is designed as a formal course in universities and colleges, and the latter is provided mainly by corporate bodies, non-profit private bodies and enterprises, to which the Ministry of Education gives recognition, assistance and guidance. Since September 1973, 42 organisations have been providing such recognised social education programmes. There are 52 clerical courses, 75 technical and 35 cultural courses. The total number of students is some 500,000 and the ratio of men to women is 6:4.

By publishing about 300,000 copies of a Guidebook on Social Correspondence Courses every year for distribution to all LEAs, the Ministry of Education is encouraging people to enrol in these courses. Since 1952, a special grant has been provided for organising study groups of students who are learning in this way.

E. MEETING THE DEMANDS FOR LEISURE ACTIVITIES

1. Expansion of Leisure Time

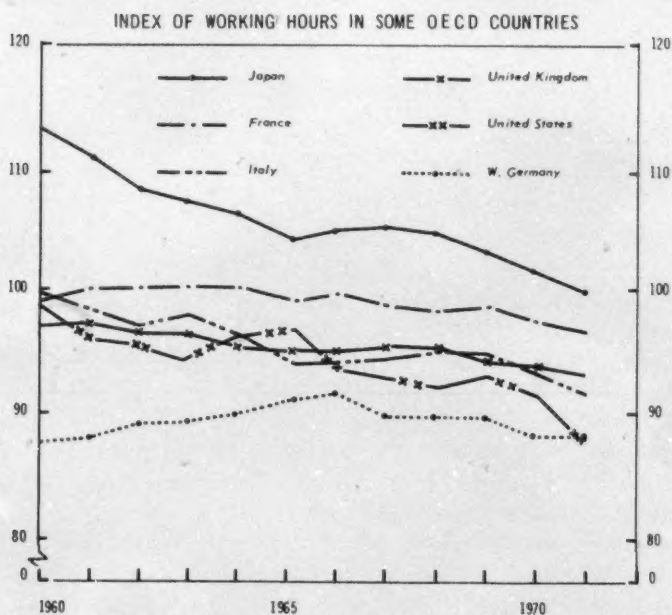
According to the survey that NHK carries out every five years on people's time-consumption in everyday life, the average leisure time of ordinary people increased by 6 per cent during the 1960s. As a result the ratio of leisure time to the total hours in a year was expanded as much as 24.6 per cent.

Table XI
PROPORTION OF THE AGE GROUP ENROLLED IN
SOCIAL CORRESPONDENCE COURSES, 1972

AGE GROUP	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	PERCENTAGE
Under 15	18,462	3.8
15 - 19	93,563	19.0
20 - 29	214,542	43.5
30 - 39	101,149	20.5
40 - 49	42,006	8.5
50 - 59	10,536	2.1
Over 60	3,100	0.6
Uncertain	9,627	2.0
Total	492,985	100.0

Average leisure hours of the working population have increased by 19.6 per cent during the 1960s, so that the leisure time of those people to the total hours in a year has increased to as much as 23.8 per cent. This may be the result of the shortening of working hours as shown in Figure V, although working hours in Japan are still longer than those in Western developed countries.

Figure 5



Note: The figures are estimated by the Ministry of Labour, supposing the actual working hours of Japanese workers in 1971 as 100.

2. Nation-wide provision for leisure - LDC and JALC

It is perhaps worth mentioning here that with the aim of coping with such tendencies, two specialised agencies were established in 1972 and 1973. The aim of these is to contribute to improvement of leisure activities among the general public. The first agency, Leisure Development Centre, began with funds from the Ministry of International Trade and Industry, the Economic Planning Agency and various private organisations, whereas the second, Japan Association for Leisure and Culture Development, was recognised as a legal entity by the Ministry of Education in 1973.

The Leisure Development Centre is best described as a "think tank" concerned with leisure problems. It performs basic research and development planning needed for preparing government and business to meet the rapidly growing and diversifying demands of the Japanese people for leisure-related facilities, services and information. The Centre's work is conducted in the following areas:

Basic and comprehensive research on leisure, such as:

- i) individual's attitude towards leisure and images of leisure;
- ii) leisure problems related to elderly people, and housewives;

Planning leisure-related facilities, such as:

- i) hobby farming (i.e. rent-a-pilot-farm);
- ii) hobby workshop;
- iii) a large-scale resort development;

Experimental installation and administration of leisure-related facilities, such as:

- i) leisure information centre system, with 1975 as target year for opening.

The Japan Association for Leisure and Culture Development on the other hand aims to contribute towards people's personal development and the creation of culture through the promotion of leisure-time learning along the ideals of lifelong education. It might be fair to say that the LDC puts emphasis on researching and planning large-scale projects for leisure so as to provide the general public with "hardware", whereas the JALC intends to be a provider of "software" for the learning activities of people by making use of the existing Miscellaneous Schools as "salons of leisure".

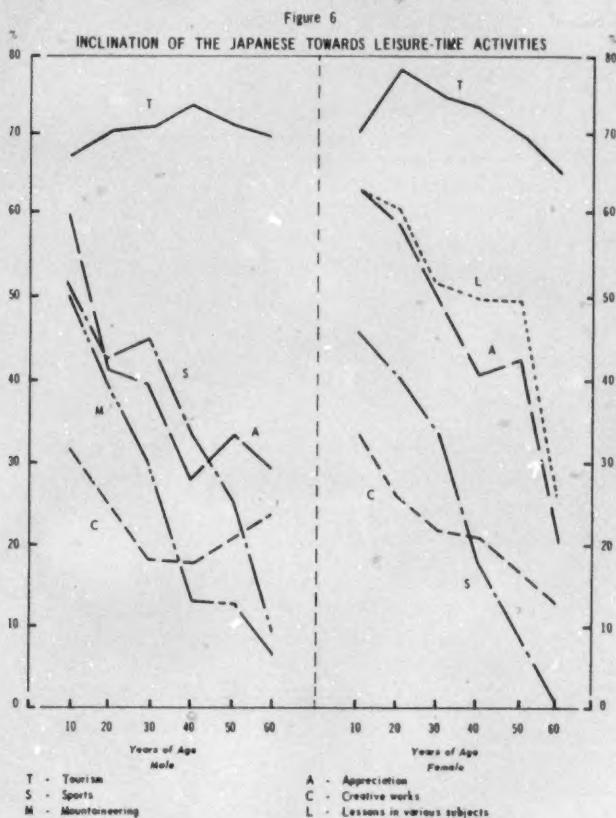
As we have seen, these Miscellaneous Schools have been providing the general public with a great deal of learning opportunity (for certain subjects or skills), but now that there is greater public demand for learning or cultural activities they are expected

to perform their part, not only as a school, but also as a "salon/meeting place" for the neighbourhood, where people have access to all the information they need for starting leisure-time activity of any kind.

The following are the main areas of JALC's work:

- i) the establishment of a model "leisure salon", and a network of salons;
- ii) exploitation of leisure-related information in local communities;
- iii) development of programmes for leisure-learning activities;
- iv) training of personnel to organise leisure-time activities;
- v) international exchanges of leisure-time activities.

Investigations carried out by the LCD confirm the strong inclination of the Japanese towards leisure-time activities. As is shown in Figure 6 such outdoor activities as tourism, competitive sports, mountaineering, etc. are among the most popular, followed by appreciation, creative work and lessons in various subjects.



Chapter III

ADMINISTRATIVE MEASURES

1. ORIENTATION RECOMMENDED BY THE SOCIAL EDUCATION COUNCIL

During the latter part of the 1960s great progress was made in the area of industrialisation and urbanisation, which caused rapid changes in the social structure and in people's everyday lives. This is evidenced by such phenomena as:

Scientific and technological innovation

- a) changes in industrial structure
 - requires re-education and retraining
- b) short-time effectiveness of skills and knowledge
 - demands continuing refresher courses

Progress of industrialisation

- a) gathering of people into urban industrialised centres
 - problems of over-population and difficult living conditions in big cities on the one hand and sparse population in rural areas on the other
- b) destruction of the environment and pollution of air, water and foodstuffs
 - leads to the study of and movement against such severe problems
- c) expansion of automation and monotonous labour
 - necessitates an effort to recapture humanity
- d) expansion of mass production
 - forces mass consumption upon people

Urbanisation of ways of life

- a) higher standards of living and education
 - lead to stronger desires for accessibility to higher cultural pursuits
- b) increasing contacts with heterogenous patterns of life
 - cause psychological tension and conflicts
- c) expansion of mass consumption and fashions
 - requires people's selective ability

Prolongation of average life span

- a) expansion of free time or leisure
 - requires the ability to make good use of leisure
- b) transition into the aged society
 - needs special consideration for the aged in terms of social roles they have to play

Decrease in birth rate

- a) increase of the "nuclear family" and small number of children in family
 - causes a lack of mutual training among the family members
- b) shortage of young labour force
 - causes an easy job transition among young workers

Expansion of mass communication media and means of transport

- a) overflow of information
 - leads to the decrease in values of information
 - requires the ability to select valid information
- b) increase of international contacts
 - requires the ability to communicate with people in different countries and to see things from an international viewpoint.

With these extreme changes, people became faced with various new problems of life and developed demands for lifelong learning; at the same time they had little free time and money to spare. Also during this period new techniques of communication were developing. This combination of conditions seemed to make the climate ripe for promoting lifelong learning.

Against this social background, the Minister of Education requested the Social Education Council in July 1968 to make an overall investigation of social education policies and measures in the past, a clarification of current problems, and presentation of a future policy with detailed measures to be implemented for the promotion of social education. As a result of deliberation over three years this Council submitted to the Ministry of Education in April 1971 a report on "What social education should be like to cope with the rapid change of social structure".

The main proposals of this report are as follows:

1. Broadening of the concept of Social education.
Social education in the future should be broadly understood as a general term for all types of educational activities made at any place and at any time in each individual's everyday life.

2. Distinction between social education and social education administration.

It is necessary to make a distinction between educational activities based on an individual's spontaneous learning and the social education administration responsible to assist and promote educational activities even though they are closely related.

3. Systematisation of social education from the viewpoint of lifelong education.

In order to provide people with educational opportunities that are as broad and effective as possible, it is necessary to clarify the problems they face during each period of their personal life, and the content of studies necessary to solve them. It is also necessary to systematise all provisions for lifelong education.

In planning and implementing these social education provisions it is particularly important to stimulate the individual's willingness to learn and to take account of peculiarities in the local situation. In this sense, there should be a precise division of the roles of national, prefectural and municipal bodies with the municipalities naturally taking the primary and most important role, and with the national and prefectural authorities assisting the municipal bodies.

The detailed roles of the individual authorities may be explained as follows:

The functions of municipal bodies:

- a) to organise and operate their own social education facilities for local use;
- b) to provide and promote various programmes, youth study classes, adult classes, school extension courses, training courses, sports meetings, etc.;
- c) to encourage and assist the activities of voluntary bodies;
- d) to offer all types of educational materials and equipment for public use.

The functions of prefectural governments are:

- a) to establish and operate their own facilities for regional service;
- b) to encourage and assist the activities of voluntary organisations, with special emphasis on the training of their leaders, at the prefectural level;
- c) to prepare the necessary standards for management of concerned facilities with the aim of raising the level of these services;

- d) to keep close liaison and co-operation with the municipal bodies by providing them with the necessary assistance, guidance and advice as well as with the necessary educational materials and information.

The functions of national government are:

- a) to establish and operate facilities for nation-wide service;
- b) to set up the necessary standards for the establishment and management of these facilities as well as for the qualification and allocation of social education personnel;
- c) to provide local bodies and voluntary organisations with the necessary guidance, assistance, and advice with the aim of raising the national standard of social education;
- d) to carry out basic investigations and make plans necessary for the promotion of social education in co-operation with universities, research institutions, local bodies, etc.;
- e) to give financial assistance to provide facilities and to distribute educational materials and information;
- f) to promote the voluntary activities of independent organisations.

The basic principle of the social education administration in Japan is decentralisation based upon the premise that the municipal bodies should take the primary and most important role. Local, regional and national governments are expected to share the roles in improving the environment for social education in accordance with their own area of responsibility. The national government's Ministry of Education will have a particular role to co-ordinate all the administrations to avoid a breakdown in their disintegration of communication because of extreme decentralisation. Some people will criticise this principle as being a totalitarian approach. However, in my opinion there should be a balance between decentralisation and centralisation, otherwise it would involve such a risk as to put too much emphasis on partial advantages and interests without consideration of balanced welfare for the whole nation.

Promotion of Voluntary Activities

As emphasised in the report of the Social Education Council, social education is based upon the individual's spontaneity for learning. Because the individual learners are of various ages, and their educational needs and actual learning activities are so widely ranged, it is rather difficult for public bodies to appoint a sufficient number of full-time, trained staff to assist and guide all their learning activities. It is almost impossible to promote such wide range activity without the co-operation of volunteers to assist the already mentioned social education office which is responsible

for the improvement of educational environments, as well as the part-time social education leaders who are engaged in the guidance of their own specialised field.

A major reason why educational authorities are concerned with the promotion of such activities by volunteers may be that they required a great number of leaders in order to provide the mutual assistance and guidance which is a necessary and basic principle of social education. The idea has gradually been recognised among people "that a man develops himself through voluntary work by answering the needs of others, and through his own study activities acquires the necessary ability to perform his voluntary work". When a person is satisfied with what he has, he has no particular desire to develop his capabilities. But if he has just a little more than those around him and cares to offer what he has to others who need his services, he certainly can develop further. This idea may be the essence of voluntary work. However, there are not many Japanese willing to render help and service to other people, partly because they are rather shy and retiring. Such full-time staff as social education officers, public hall staff, etc. have therefore another important role as mediators or intermediaries who keep all kinds of information on the available resources in various fields within their areas, and of potential leaders in need of instruction.

With such things in mind, the Ministry of Education has been engaged for three years in research in about fifteen cities all over the country to determine the measures necessary for the promotion of voluntary activities among women, in particular those between the middle thirties and fifties who no longer have to care for their children. It is a great problem to discover how their leisure hours should be most effectively used, not only in their own interests, but for the benefit of the community or society in which they live. Voluntary activities might satisfy their desires, but a prerequisite before establishing voluntary services in a community is that there is a genuine need for them. Local authorities are currently investigating what the communities want.

Among voluntary activities that have achieved good results over the past several years are these:

Community services for small children, the elderly, and the handicapped:

- collection of folklore and story telling;
- rewriting in raised type (Braille) and record-making for the blind.

Assistance at educational and cultural centres:

- care centres for children at citizens' public halls;
- guidance of physical recreations;

- reading guidance for children at libraries;
- arrangements for exhibitions at museums.

Activities within the social welfare service:

- counselling work at the centres for the elderly;
- guidance in flower-arrangement, crafts, recreation, etc. at centres for the elderly;
- guidance in playing, singing, reading, etc. at centres for children.

Measures that public bodies should take to promote such voluntary activities include the recruitment of volunteers by organising introductory or orientation courses that make clear the true meaning of voluntary activities, and the provision of advanced courses to meet their present or future needs. Another important requirement that has become clear in the course of investigation is the establishment of a volunteer bureau where information about needs for service will be available and those who have completed their training courses can find the opportunities to serve. Recurrent education aims at an alternation of work and leisure, and these provisions for voluntary service seem worthy of attention in the sense that they enable leisure time to be filled with meaningful activities that are not forced on the individual from the outside - in other words, they are not "work".

2. SOCIAL EDUCATION PERSONNEL

a) National subsidy for social education officers

The system for social education is not yet as well established as that for school education, and the most urgent task for public bodies is to recruit and strengthen staff members who are responsible for its promotion and improvement. Under the Social Education Law of 1947, which recognised the necessity for qualified staff, every local education authority with jurisdiction over a population of more than 10,000 was required to have one or more social education officers. The Law states that "the Social Education Officers shall give professional and technical advice and guidance to those who are engaged in social education". However, it also states that they shall not have control over local social education activities.

Despite this last clause in the Law, the Social Education Council Report of 1971 suggested that their duties be as follows:

- to know the inhabitants' educational needs and demands;
- to stimulate their willingness to learn;
- to organise their study activities;

- to provide them with the necessary information and facilities to improve their learning activities;
- to find, train and make good use of leaders.

In other words, they should be equipped to play an important role as planners of the environment for social education as well as promoters of all types of social educational activities in their regions. While, however, one might well say that social education officers should be the driving force behind the development of social education in Japan, in reality their number and qualifications are far from adequate. It has proved difficult to find competent people who are interested in these positions. This may well be partly because the specialised nature of the responsibilities of the social education officers has not been clearly defined, and partly because the working conditions necessary to attract competent personnel are not provided (for example, their status as well as their salaries are much lower than those of school teachers). Also there are few chances for promotion as they are all appointed by municipal authorities who have only a limited personnel establishment for such work. This shortage of social education officers is apparent at all levels of community life. As a measure to solve the problem, prefectural authorities have been sending their own social education officials, who are well qualified, into the cities, towns and villages within their regions paying half their salaries with the national government subsidising the other half. Since the fiscal year 1974-75, the Ministry of Education has appropriated the necessary funds for 750 social education officers (1,890,000 yen per year per officer).

National support for social education officers did not materialise until some years after the national treasury began to subsidise half the salaries of teachers in compulsory education. In 1974 the first step was taken to establish a system in which the national government as well as the municipal bodies is responsible for improving social educational environments - not only for children but also for adults throughout their life.

Social education officers are currently qualified either by the completion of a prescribed course at a university or the completion of a two-month special training course following graduation, the latter being provided by various universities and other educational institutions at the request of the Director of Education. Unfortunately, however, no basic career structure has yet been defined well enough to make the job particularly attractive as a life work. The prefectural social education officers encounter most of their problems in dealing with officials working for other social education facilities such as citizens' public halls, youth houses, and the like, whose number has been steadily increasing.

b) Social Education Leaders (Part-time Officers)

Because social education is based upon the individual's interest in learning, it has been difficult to maintain a sufficient number of full-time experts even for temporary and informal study activities. For this reason it has been found desirable to form groups of experts, on a part-time basis, who are available upon request. While, therefore, the full-time social education officers are responsible for the development of a learning environment, these part-time leaders are expected to take a principal part in private or informal group studies. This arrangement has contributed to an improvement in the system and most of the social education officers now play a part in both phases of social education. The new system was set up in 1972, each of the national, prefectural and municipal authorities being expected to bear one-third of the cost of these part-time leaders. During the first year of this plan, expenses for employing 1,000 of them were budgeted and during the second year (1973-74) 2,500 leaders were budgeted. They have been paid 36,000 yen for their three-day working week during the first two years, but from the fiscal year 1974-75 this is to be increased to 42,000 yen for the same period.

c) Improvement of Social Education Facilities

"Social education facilities" as understood here include the following: public halls, adult education colleges, all sorts of Miscellaneous Schools, libraries, museums, and the like. Of these the citizens' public halls need some further attention because it is they that have played the most prominent part in social education in Japan.

3. KOMINKAN (Citizens' Public Halls)

Origin and Function

After World War II, Japan had to face an acute demand for re-education of her people and reconstruction of her national culture in order to keep in step with the sudden drastic change in her government, her institutions, and the general climate of thinking. It was in 1946, the year following the end of the war, that the original idea of the Kominkan as a spear-head for the new social education campaign was adopted by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry's Notification regarding Encouragement for Establishing Kominkans was issued on 5th July, 1946, and said, among other things: "It may be advisable to establish in every town or village a Kominkan - a house for the citizens - where town and village people may come at any time to talk, read and discuss with one another, and sometimes

obtain help in personal problems or in trade. People can mutually increase their friendly relations at the Kominkan. The Kominkan is a multi-purpose cultural centre, simultaneously functioning as civic school, library, museum, town hall, assembly house and depot. It will also provide headquarters for various organisations in the provinces such as women's associations and youth organisations ... This important facility, however, should not be initiated by any order from above, but be established solely on the autonomous demand and with the co-operation of the local community".

With the Social Education Law of 1949, the Kominkan established its position as a main organ for the promotion of social education. In 1971, a report presented by the Social Education Council recommended that the Kominkan should be further developed into an adult education institution with a view to establishing a lifelong integrated education system. The Kominkan has been thus developing its aims and functions as a multi-purpose community centre into a more educational institution for adults.

Financial Support

The Kominkan is founded and run by a city, town or village and in some cases by a corporate body. When a Kominkan is established, the central government provides a capital grant amounting to about 10 million yen, which is equivalent to some 10 per cent of the total construction expenditure. The prefectural government usually provides about the same amount, also as a capital grant. The cost of equipment is sometimes covered by voluntary contributions, which reflects the interest of the local community.

In response to a recommendation by the Social Education Council, the total amount of the national grant has been increased from 400 million yen in 1970-71, 1,070 million yen in 1971-72, 1,475 million yen in 1972-73, 2,950 million yen in 1973-74, to 3,540 million yen in 1974-75. This shows that the importance of the Kominkan for the Japanese social education has been increasingly recognised by the people concerned and the general public. Nevertheless it seems that the national grant is still too small to meet the pressing need for establishing new Kominkans.

Standards of Facilities

In the early years of its development, the Kominkan did not necessarily have its own premises. There were many, called "blue sky Kominkan", which at the start had no building of their own and carried out their activities in any available facility, for example, town halls, office buildings of agricultural co-operatives, primary and secondary schools and so on. It was only gradually that they obtained their own buildings.

In 1959, a regulation called "The Standards Regarding the Establishment and Operation of Kominkan" was issued to set a minimum standard for Kominkan facilities. Its requirements were:

1. The floor space of a Kominkan building shall be not less than 330 square metres excluding the auditorium.
2. A Kominkan shall have at the least the following:
 - facilities for conferences and meetings (auditorium, conference room, etc.);
 - facilities for storage and utilisation of materials (library, children's room, exhibition room, etc.);
 - facilities for studying or training (lecture room, experiments room, etc.);
 - facilities for administration (office, night duty room, storage, etc.).

As of 1971, there were 8,368 Kominkans equipped with their own premises and 5,881 were attached to the pre-existing buildings.

Activities at the Kominkan

Kominkan activities may be divided roughly into two categories: firstly the provision of facilities and equipment for public use; secondly its own programmes organised for the local community. These last include:

- classes and courses for adults or youths, single lectures, symposia, etc.;
- art exhibitions, film shows, meetings for physical training and recreation;
- provision of an information centre, with magazines, books, documents, models and other materials;
- provision of facilities and equipment for various kinds of cultural activities such as music, arts, literature, drama, etc.;
- acting as a liaison office for the various organisations and bodies concerned;
- consultation services for the local people;
- publicity activities.

Anything done at the Kominkan for the purpose of profit-making or in support of any specific political party or religious sect is prohibited.

Staffing

According to the regulation of 1959, a Kominkan shall have a full-time director and staff officers, the latter to be increased in number if so required by the scope and character of the activities

undertaken. However, there are still many directors who work part-time only and the average number of full-time staff officers (who are employed by the Local Education Authority) is a little less than two per Kominkan.

Programme Planning

For designing and running programmes specifically appropriate to the locality, each Kominkan has its own Advisory Committee appointed by the Local Education Authority. Its members are representatives of its service area, such as principals of primary or secondary schools, people from agricultural co-operatives, trade, commerce, women's and youth organisations, and a few "elder statesmen". Classes and courses are organised by a preparatory committee consisting of the full-time staff and representatives of those who will participate in them. This committee decides upon the theme and content of the courses, the lecturers or instructors they wish to invite, and ways to recruit participants.

Perspectives and Problems

Kominkans have been apt to provide multi-purpose programmes, acting as centres for the community as a whole, rather than adult education. However, from the viewpoint of a lifelong education system, there is nowadays a strong demand that the Kominkan should function in the latter sense, providing continuous and systematic educational programmes rather than informal activities. There are a number of Kominkans that are well equipped with modern facilities and trained staff, but, as mentioned already, there are still as many detached ones. There is a great need for the improvement of physical and personnel conditions.

It is widely thought by the people concerned that a Kominkan should have two types of staff if it is to function more effectively as an adult education centre. First, there should be those who plan and organise the programmes in accordance with the needs of the community; and secondly, there should be those who implement them - animators, tutors, instructors and so on. As for the latter, it may be possible to make use of the resources in the community on a part-time basis, but it would still be necessary for the Kominkan to have at least some full-time staff for this purpose.

4. SOME EXAMPLES OF SOCIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES AND ADMINISTRATION

As already mentioned, one of the roles of the Ministry of Education is to collect relevant data and disseminate it to the

Table XII
NUMBER OF SOCIAL EDUCATION FACILITIES IN JAPAN

Year	Citizen's Public Hall (Kominkan)	Library*	Museum	Educational Facilities for Youth					Facilities For Women's Education	Audio- Visual Library	Public Physical Training Facilities
				Youth House	City Youth House	Child Cultural Centre	Children's Nature Home	The Others			
1963	19,410	810	294	81		15	0	...	34	513	2,524
1968	13,785	825	338	180		28	0	..	46	499	4,659
1971	14,229	917	345	197	76	32	12	284	66	520	7,154

Source: Ministry of Education, Survey on Social Education.

* Excluding libraries established in schools and enterprises.

local bodies for the improvement of their educational administration. To assist in this the Bureau of Social Education requests each Prefectural Board of Education to collect good examples of Social Education activities and reports from those responsible on what they have done and what they presently have in hand. This scheme was started a few years ago for Women's Education and Parent Education by the Women's Education Section of the Bureau, and is now going to be extended into other fields of social education. The contents of this case study of good examples are as follows:

Content of Social Education

- Home Education (Education of Parenthood)
for infants, schoolchildren, young people, etc.;
- Juvenile Education
for their individual and social life;
- Youth Education
for their individual, civic and vocational life;
- Adult Education
for their individual, home, civic and vocational life
(including PTA activities);
- Women's Education
for their individual, home, civic and vocational life.

Methods of Social Education

- Organising Educational Activities
planning committee, survey, publicity service, public hearing, etc.;
- Operation of Educational Activities
individual learning, group study, process of learning, evaluation, etc.

Executive Measures by Social Education Administration

- Review of Social Education Administration;
- Assurance of the budget for Social Education;
- Review of Social Education Personnel;
- Review of Social Education Establishments;
- Management of Social Education Programmes as for Public Bodies, Voluntary Organisations, and co-operation with mass media.

This checklist is expected to provide those who are responsible for the planning and administration of Social Education with some suggestions for carrying out their duties. On the other hand it is hoped that a sort of bird's-eye view of the whole area of Social Education will contribute a good deal in clarifying its areas of activity and administrative measures, from which both researchers and officers will receive some inspiration for their future work.

5. STATISTICS AND INDICATORS OF LEA ACTIVITIES FOR SOCIAL EDUCATION

In order to evaluate the executive measures for social education taken at prefectural level, the Social Education Bureau of the Ministry of Education collected data concerning the following items from 47 prefectures in 1973. These were collected and distributed in the form of statistics and indicators to all prefectures the following year (see Figure 7).

Review of Social Education Personnel

- Number of staff in the Social Education Division
- Number of municipalities for each SE officer in charge
- Ratio of LEAs that appoint SE officers
- Average number of SE officers appointed by each LEA
- Number of SE officers who received in-service training at the National Training Institute of Social Education
- Number of SE leaders appointed by LEAs
- Number of full-time Kominkan staff per 100,000 inhabitants
- Number of museum staff
- Number of library staff
- Number of Youth House staff
- Number of Children's Nature House staff
- Status of the Social Education Section within the Prefectural Institute for Education Research and Training

Service Conditions of Social Education Establishments

- Number of Kominkans satisfying the required conditions, and number per 100,000 inhabitants
- Number of libraries, and number per 100,000 inhabitants
- Number of museums, " " " " "
- Number of Youth Houses, " " " "
- Number of Children's Nature Houses, " "
- Number of audio-visual libraries, " "

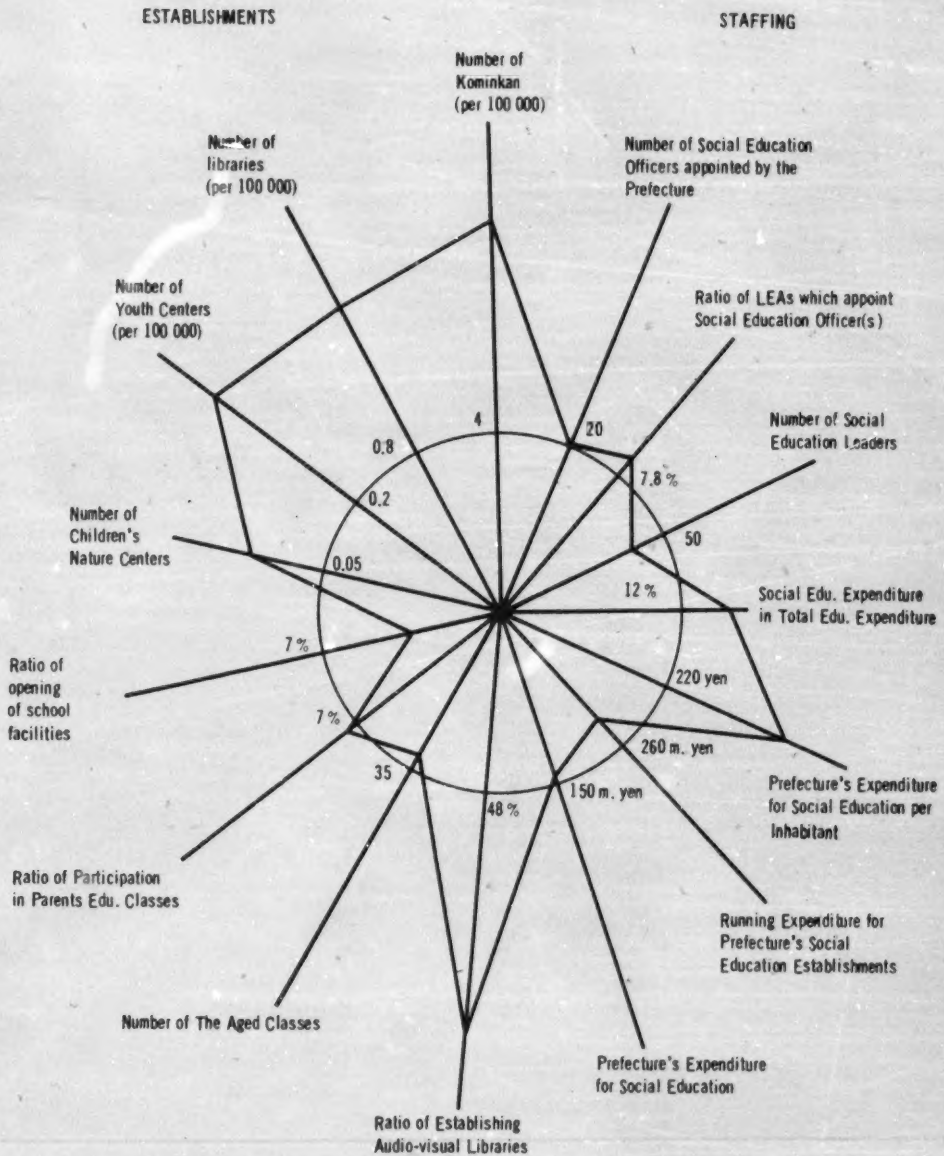
Social Education Projects or Programmes

- Opening of school facilities (number of operating schools/total number of elementary and lower-secondary schools)
- Percentage of young people (15-25) joining youth organisations
- Percentage of school children (6-15) joining juvenile organisations
- Percentage of participants in Parents Education Classes (number of participants/total number of households with children under 18)
- Percentage of participants in Women's Study Classes (number of participants/total number of women voters)

Figure 7

AN EXAMPLE OF INDICATOR ON EXECUTIVE MEASURES FOR SOCIAL EDUCATION

(Akita Prefecture, 1973; the circle indicates the average for the 47 prefectures surveyed)



- Percentage of women joining any women's organisation/total number of women voters
- Number of SE officers who attended training courses provided by the prefecture
- Number of voluntary leaders who participated in training courses provided by the prefecture
- Number of audio-visual education specialists who participated in training courses provided by the prefecture
- Percentage of social correspondence education students to the entire population
- Number of classes for the elderly (number of classes/total number of municipalities)

Expenditure for Social Education

- Ratio of expenditure for social education to total educational expenditure
- Annual expenditure for SE per inhabitant
- Annual expenditure for SE per recipient group or objective (programmes for pre-school children, school children, working youth, general adults, women, the elderly, and also capital expenditure for the establishment of Kominkans, libraries, museums, etc.)
- Annual expenditure for running such SE establishments as Kominkans, libraries, museums, Youth Houses, Children's Nature Houses, etc.

6. COMMISSIONING OF EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION BROADCASTS

Keeping pace with the rapid changes in society are those taking place in family life, with the resulting loss of parental authority, mothers' over-anxiety concerning children's education, and a general weakening of discipline in the home. Citizenship training is also difficult to achieve. In this situation, it has become increasingly difficult to make a real contribution to the personality development of children. Many parents are searching for ways the better to understand their children, and for guidelines on how best to educate them.

The television programme "Through the Eyes of Children and Parents" seeks to speak to the parents of today; it attempts to show parents the lives of ordinary children and to give them guidance in how to build better parent-child relationships. It is hoped that the programme may stimulate parents in their study as individuals or perhaps with others in groups or classes for home education. Begun in 1970, this programme is continuing as follows:

1. Programme themes

Period 1: April - June 1973

"Parents and Children Get Together", "Parent-Child Exchanges" (a new psychological term which is popular now)", "The Role of Mothers (Fathers)", "Activities for the Family Together"

Period 2: July - September

"Giving our Children Strength": through "Sports", "Health and Safety", "Cultural Activities"

Period 3: October - December

"Discovering Nature", "Enjoying Nature", "Outdoor Activities"

Period 4: January - March 1974

"Children who are Alert to Society", "Broadening the Scope of Children's Play and Activities", "Developing a Sense of Responsibility"

2. Time: Programmes are once a week, thirty minutes each, for a total of fifty-two hours a year.

3. Form: Colour television

4. Producer: The programmes are produced by the Commercial Broadcasters' Educational Association, in consultation with the Ministry of Education.

5. Number of Broadcasting Companies: There are 32 commercial broadcasting companies.

7. PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATIONAL FILMS

In order to have films that are useful in social or school education, the Ministry of Education recommends and approves appropriate materials, requests production, makes purchases, and uses films in actual teaching situations. The purpose is to enhance the overall effectiveness of education.

Films approved for use in Social Education:

1971

Citizens' Public Halls

Learning about PTA

Youth Centres

1972

Making Retirement Years Fruitful

Children's Nature Centres

Youth Groups and Centres for City Youth

Women's Volunteer Activities

Supply of Audio-Visual Aids

1973

Individual Study

Youth Group Activities

Management of Women's Classes

Use of Social Education Broadcasts

Discussion Leadership

8. PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION OF RECORDING MATERIALS

As explained above, the Ministry of Education commissions and purchases various recorded materials (television and other films, records, tapes, etc.) for broadcast use and generally to contribute to the increased effectiveness of education. During 1973, it purchased 470 units of such material and distributed them to prefectural, metropolitan area libraries, approved city education committees and audio-visual libraries. They consisted of:

A series for study by directors of public halls.

A series for study by leaders of younger and teenage youth groups.

A series for individual or class study in home education.

9. STRATEGY FOR BUDGETING

With the support of the recommendation made by the Social Education Council in 1971 as well as the overall atmosphere which stresses the necessity for the reorientation of the education system in the direction of lifelong education, the budget for Social Education at the national level has been increasing yearly as shown in Figure 8. This increase, as well as having the impetus of the social conditions just mentioned, is due also to a method that the Bureau of Social Education has adopted - what may be called a "wedge-shaped strategy". Since the total amount of money allocated to the Ministry of Education is limited, it is not an easy task for the Bureau to get all it wants. The request for finance, however, is put forward after severe examination of the proposed budget, stressing a certain area and sometimes even withdrawing the already authorised budget. This has resulted in a remarkable increase in the budget for Social Education.

Table XIII

SOCIAL EDUCATION EXPENDITURES AND ITS
PERCENTAGE IN TOTAL EDUCATION EXPENDITURES

Public and Private Education Expenditures by Field

(in million yen)

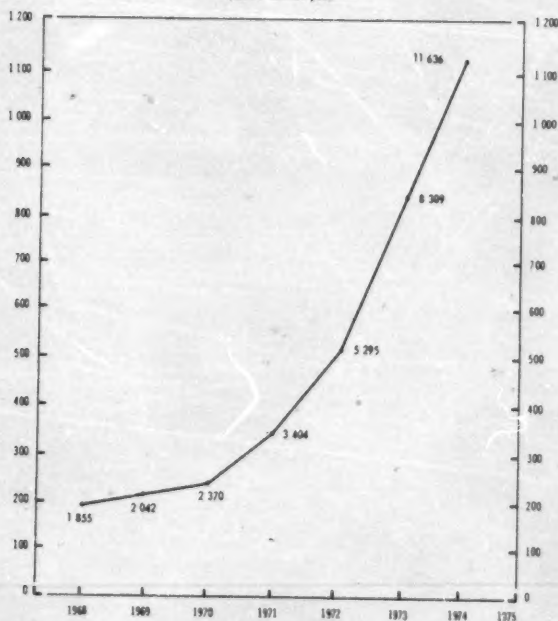
Year	Total	School Education	Social Education*	Miscellaneous Schools	Educational Administration**
1950	173,939	150,991	5,200	3,397	15,351
1955	437,350	398,067	7,785	9,415	22,083
1960	752,209	683,383	14,937	19,339	34,550
1965	1,788,199	1,605,232	40,939	51,855	90,173
1966	2,040,053	1,821,043	51,284	63,039	104,687
1967	2,291,851	2,043,436	60,196	72,039	116,180
1968	2,593,004	2,308,050	69,808	82,686	132,460

Source: Ministry of Education, Educational Standards in Japan, 1970.

* Expenditure paid by local boards of education.

** The total sum of administrative expenditures paid by central and local governments and managerial expenditures paid by school juridical foundations.

Figure 8
THE BUDGET FOR SOCIAL EDUCATION BUREAU 1968-1974
(Unit: million yen)



Note: Three hundred million yen is almost equal to one million dollars.

Chapter 4

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The issue of recurrent education has been discussed, especially within the circle of OECD countries responding to the proposals made by CERI, but its aims should not be based exclusively on economic development. We can not of course neglect the importance of economic development, as we know that human culture is able to flourish only when the survival of the human race is assured.

It is quite understandable that the Japanese have found it necessary to reconstruct their nation after the destruction of World War II, putting great emphasis on economic development. These efforts have resulted, however, in an increasing amount of environmental pollution, traffic accidents and so on, while at the same time affecting the sensitivity of the Japanese people. It is therefore an urgent task for us not only to secure our existence but also to foster the competence that enables people to lead a complete life as human beings. In other words, education for love, culture and wisdom are just as important as education for survival or development.

As the Japanese economy exists by adding values to imported raw materials, and now that it has recognised that world resources are limited, the Ministry of International Trade and Industry intends to convert the existing industrial structure into one which will require less energy and raw materials. This transformation of the industrial structure may need a new type of workforce equipped with multi-technical ability. If this competence cannot be acquired on the job, then a recurrent education training system will become necessary.

As mentioned previously, among the values that mankind pursues should be included not only development, but also love, culture and wisdom - as Mr. Adiseshia has put it. In other words, within recurrent education proper attention should be paid to values other than economic development. The Japanese approach to recurrent education deals with education not only as a means of development, but also as a means of rearing babies and infants, securing good educational environments for schoolchildren, stimulating voluntary activities among adults, etc. It is concerned with all stages of human development, from the cradle to the grave, providing better learning

opportunities for all. All that we can do, and must do, is to provide a proper educational environment for study, since people themselves participate spontaneously in certain learning activities. No one can persuade people to attend classes in a recurring manner; this opposes the principle of self-education.

There seems little doubt that there must be some supervised operation in the sector of economic development and it is inevitable that we should accept such supervision. Even so, people have to be made to "feel needed" and this may be one of the educationalist's tasks.

The former Director of the Social Education Bureau, Mr. T. Imamura, said "It is time for implementation now, not for arguments". I am not quite sure that the ways we have adopted for the implementation of the ideals of recurrent education, lifelong education, or social education may be interesting to other OECD countries, but I hope the measures described in this report may give some useful ideas for application outside Japan.

Appendix
OPINIONS ABOUT "LIFELONG EDUCATION"

Question 1: Have you ever heard the phrase "Lifelong Education?"

	Total	Sex		Age Group				Regional Pattern		The Highest Level of Education Completed		
		Male	Female	15-21	22-40	40-59	Over 60	Urban	Others	Elementary Ed.	Secondary Ed.	Higher Ed.
Number of Respondents	23,297	11,663	11,634	2,338	9,365	7,787	3,807	11,573	11,724	7,877	10,036	5,384
a) Yes	50.1%	54.7%	45.4%	31.4%	51.2%	55.5%	47.6%	50.3%	49.9%	34.0%	55.3%	63.9%
b) No	49.9	45.3	54.6	68.6	48.8	44.5	52.4	49.7	50.1	66.0	44.7	36.1

Question 3: What do you think about the idea that it is necessary for us to continue learning through our lives?

Number of Respondents	22,644	11,340	11,304	2,293	9,113	7,560	3,678	11,157	11,487	7,609	9,777	5,258
a) Very necessary	35.3%	38.4%	32.1%	27.8%	34.7%	38.1%	35.6%	35.0%	35.6%	24.6%	36.9%	47.6%
b) Necessary	52.8	51.3	54.3	57.4	56.0	51.1	45.6	53.0	52.7	54.7	54.8	46.5
c) Not necessary	0.9	1.1	0.8	1.4	0.7	0.6	1.3	0.9	0.8	1.1	0.7	0.8
d) Don't know	11.0	9.2	12.8	13.4	8.6	10.2	17.5	11.1	10.9	19.6	7.6	5.1

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